CHAPTER-2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part discusses the conceptualization of verbs and verb phrase in general, and the second part is the review of works done on the verbs and verb phrase in Thadou and some Kuki-Chin languages of the Tibeto-Burman language family.

2.1. Verbs

According to Fabb (1994) a verb is a word which represents an action or an event or a state of affairs. He gives two important characteristics of verbs;

i) The first special characteristic is that the shape of the verb can encode the tense of the sentence.

ii) The second special characteristics is that an English verb can agree with its subject if the verb is present and the subject is third person singular.

Jackson (2002) states that a verb is a class of word used for expressing the action, event or state and are used in the construction of verb phrase with subclasses of auxiliary and main verb.

2.2. Types of verbs

2.2.1. Transitive and Intransitive Verb

Palmer (1976) states transitive verbs as verb with two place predicate and intransitive verbs as one place predicate verbs.

Lyons (1968) explains these notions of Verbs with the predicate a Verb can have. He classified verbs in terms of the number of nominal with which they
combine in the nuclei of sentences. According to this classification verbs which requires only one nominal is a one-place verb. A transitive verb is a two-place verb, one of the places being filled by the subject and the other by the object. And some verbs are three-place verbs, combining with a subject, a direct object and an indirect object.

Gran (1995) affirms five main parts of the Verb paradigm. These are the stem form, the third person singular, the present participle or the gerund form, the past simple form and the past participle, the tense or finite form are the stem form and the past tense form. The other forms do not carry tense information and are known as non-finite.

Tallerman (1998) divides verbs into various sub-classes: Intransitive verbs, Transitive verbs and Di-transitive verbs. He terms Intransitive verbs as verbs with only one participants or argument, verbs which requires two arguments or predicates which have two participants as Transitive verbs and Di-transitive verbs as verbs which has three arguments namely the participants which will be someone performing the action, an item being acted upon and a recipient.

Dixon and Alexander (2000) identify Transitive verb as Verbs which are allowed to take two NP arguments and Intransitive verbs are allowed to take one NP argument.

Givon (2001) classified verbs into dummy-subject-verbs, copula verbs, simple Intransitive verbs, simple transitive verbs, bi-transitive verbs and modality verbs. He describes Dummy-subject verbs as verbs which code states or events involving mostly natural conditions or weather phenomena. They are clearly intransitive in that they have no object. Syntactically, the verb phrase in dummy-
subject clauses may be either adjectival or verbal. Verbs in simple intransitive verbs class code states, events or actions. Their subject may be an agent, patient or dative. The syntactic structure of simple intransitive verbs is illustrated in the tree diagram

```
S
  Subj[NP]  VP
    PRO    V
        She  fell
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According to Hanson (2008) Transitive verb is one that requires a direct object and an Intransitive verb does not take a direct object.

**2.2.2. Stative Verbs and Verbs of action**

Lyons (1968) asserts that Verbs which do not normally occur in the progressive form are Stative verbs and by contrast with these, Verbs which occur freely in the progressive may be called Verbs of action.

**2.2.3. Causative Verbs**

Dixon and Palmer (1994) states causative verbs as grammatical or semi-grammatical devices for expressing the general notion of causing someone to perform a certain action. He states that all that needs to be said about causative is
that there is i) marking on the verb (whether morphological or periphrastic) ii) the addition of the causar in the subject position, iii) demotion of other arguments and iv) a causal meaning.

According to Tallerman (1998) the main way of expressing the idea of someone causing someone else to do something is by using a verb such as make, let, cause or have. In the causative construction a new argument is introduce-the causative agent and often introduces a new causative predicate as well. The original subject is demoted and a new subject is introduced. In support of his statement he gave an example, i) the student left and ii) we made/let the student left. Sentence (i) is the basic, simple clause and (ii) is the causative construction. In sentence (i) the students has been demoted from its original position as the subject of the simple clause, and a new subject we is introduced. The new subject is not promoted from anywhere since it does not exist in the basic sentence. It arises from the causative construction. Therefore the causative construction introduces a new subject and a new predicate creating a new clause. This means that the causative construction turns the simple clause into complex sentence.

Alexander (2000) states that the morphological causative of a verb describes a situation where the causer initiates a process or activity but does not necessarily act directly or intentionally.

According to Givon (2001) the periphrastic causative verbs are typically used in causative constructions with human manipulee.

Radford (2004) views Causative verbs as verbs which have much the same as ‘cause’.
2.2.4. Finite and non-finite verbs.

Palmer (1986) states that non-finite refers to forms that are unmarked for aspect, tense, mood as well as the concordial feature of number, gender and person (at least some of these features). They do not occur as the verbs of main clause and the most common names for the non-finite forms used in complementation are gerund and infinitives.

According to Tallerman (1998) a finite verb is marked for grammatical categories as tense and agreement and it can be the only verb in an independent clause. And in English the finite verbs always appears before any non-finite verbs and if any auxiliary the main verb always follows them. Non-finite verbs are generally not marked for tense, agreement or any other grammatical categories associated with finite verbs, such as aspect or mood. He again divides non-finite verbs into infinitives and participles. Infinitives in English are the bare verb stem, with no inflections and an infinitive occurs after to in the environment or is followed by a verb. He further divides participle into the present and the past participle. The present participle is the –ing form of the verb which together with auxiliary be gives progressive aspect and the past participle form of the verb together with the auxiliary have, gives the perfect aspect.

2.2.5. Prepositional verbs

Thomas (1993) asserts that a prepositional verb is one which requires a prepositional phrase in order to be complete. Verbs like glance, lean, refer are certainly incomplete without a prepositional phrase and is considered as prepositional phrase.
Tallerman (1998) describes prepositional verbs as verbs that take PP complement. And the PP complement is headed by a specific preposition, the choice of which is determined by the verb. The PP is therefore a dependent of the verb within the verb phrase.

### 2.3. Verb Phrase

According to Thomas (1993) a verb phrase contains one constituent eg. Verb or more than one constituents eg. V + NP. She explains the constituents of verb phrase depending on the type of verb it contain:

i) A verb phrase using a transitive verb normally has a direct object (DO) to be complete.

\[ \text{VP} \rightarrow \text{transitive verb + DO} \]
\[ \text{DO} \rightarrow \text{NP} \]

ii) An intransitive verb phrase does not take an object and does not require nothing else to complete the verb phrase.

\[ \text{VP} \rightarrow \text{intransitive verb} \]

She however claims that there are other constituents which can occur with this class of verb which is optional rather than obligatory and acts as adverbials (eg. AdvP and PP). The difference between the two adverbials is the constituents (its form) and what it does (its function).

iii) Verb phrase with ditransitive verb requires two object, DO and indirect object (IO). The verb is therefore followed by two NPs or a prepositional phrase (PP) and the second NP/PP is the indirect object, the recipient of the DO.

\[ \text{VP} \rightarrow \text{ditransitive verb + IO + DO} \]
iv) Verb phrase with Intensive verb the verb is followed by a verb which relates back to the subjects, describing their states and functions as the subject complement (SC). The forms of the subject complement are different. It can take the form of an NP, AP and PP.

\[
\text{DO} \rightarrow \text{NP} \\
\text{IO} \rightarrow \text{NP/PP}
\]

\[
\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{intensive verb + SC} \\
\text{SC} \rightarrow \text{NP or PP or AP}
\]

v) With complex-transitive type of verb, two elements are obligatory to complete the verb phrase. With this type of verb the complement relates to the object, not the subject. The complement is therefore an object complement (OC).

\[
\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{complex-transitive verb + DO + OC} \\
\text{DO} \rightarrow \text{NP} \\
\text{OC} \rightarrow \text{NP or PP or AP}
\]

Fabb (1994) states that a verb is the head of a verb phrase which is contained within the sentence. He gave two assumptions about what is inside the verb phrase, along with the verb which is its head:

i) The verb phrase contains anything which follows the main verb within the same sentence.

ii) The verb phrase contains the auxiliary verbs which precede the verb (i.e. words like might, could, should, have, be and do) and the negation not.
Jacobs (1995) asserts that each phrase must have a head and can consist of another constituent. Verb phrase has a verb as head and can have another constituent like adverbs.

Tallerman (1998) affirms that a verb phrase is headed by a verb. It must therefore contain a verb and often contains other words too. The complements that a verb selects are contained within the verb phrase.

According to Jackson (2002) verb phrase consist of main verbs and auxiliary verbs. Main verbs function as head, and auxiliary verbs as pre-modifiers which provide a syntactic definition of verb class. And the main verbs gives meaning of the verb phrase and auxiliary verbs adds meaning associated with tense, aspect, modality and passive.

2.3.1. Auxiliary and Non-auxiliary Verbs

According to Radford (1988) there are a number of syntactic properties which distinguish auxiliary and non-auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary can undergo ‘inversion’ in direct question, i.e. it can be move into pre-subject position. Secondly, auxiliaries can be directly negated by not/n’t in English. Thirdly, Auxiliaries appear in sentence – final ‘tags’. Whereas Non-auxiliary verbs can’t themselves be used to form ‘tags’ but rather require the use of do-tags. He further divided auxiliary verbs into modal and non-modal auxiliary. Radford (1988) defines modals as verbs possessing morphological and syntactical characteristics. Non-modal Auxiliaries have infinitive forms, gerund forms in –ing, and perfective particle forms in –n.
Tallerman (1998) states that auxiliaries are words that express the tense, aspect, mood, voice, or polarity of the verb with which they are associated and therefore auxiliary always co-occurs with a main verb.

According to Fabb (2005) auxiliary verbs are verb that supplements the main verb which is the head of the verb phrase and expresses the kind of eventuality. They precede the main verb within the verb phrase and could be treated as rather like the closed class words (articles, and degree modifiers) which come at the beginning of other kinds of phrase.

Hanson (2008) claims that there are two principle types of verbs: the main verb and the auxiliary verb. Main verbs are classified as regular or irregular. He classified auxiliary verbs as primary auxiliaries (be, have, do) or modal verbs (may, can, will, shall, must, ought, need, dare). Auxiliary verbs are helping verbs because they go along with the main verb to indicate possibility, future action, permission, desire, capability, necessity, etc. He gave five forms of regular verbs: the base or infinitive form; the past tense form; the past participle form; the present participle form and the –s form.

2.4. Verbal elements

2.4.1. Tense, Aspect and Modality (TAM)

2.4.1.1. Tense

Lyons (1968) describes tense as the essential characteristic of the category of tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence of the time of utterance (the time of utterance being ‘now’). Tense is therefore a deictic category, which (like all syntactic features partly or wholly
dependent upon deixis) is simultaneously a property of the sentence and the utterance.

Comrie (1985) represents time with the help of a straight line given below, with the past represented conventionally to the left and the future to the right. The present moment represented by a point labelled O on the line.

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PAST   O   PRESENT
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Comrie is of the opinion that the situation referred to by the verb in the present tense is a situation holding literally at the present moment and thus claims that present tense refers only to a situation holding at the present moment, even where that situation is a part of a larger situation that occupies more than just the present moment. Past tense referring to the time line locates a situation to the left of a present moment. Past tense is thus location in time prior to the present moment and that the use of the past tense only locates the situation in the past, without saying anything about that situation continues to the present or into the future. He defines future tense as locating a situation at a time subsequent to the present moment i.e. to the right of the present moment on the diagram of the time line presentation. He however claims that there are languages that lack tenses or tense distinction. In such languages it is possible for time reference to be expressed in other ways, for instance lexically, by the use of adverbials. The precise time reference of a tense less construction will be deducible from the context. The realis particle can be used only on sentences that have present or past time reference and so seem to be an indicator of non-future. He comments that a certain culture lacks any concept of time, or has a radically different concept of
time, is based simply on the fact that the language has no grammatical device for expressing location in time, i.e. has no tense.

Jacobs (1995) affirms that tense is the grammatical marking on verbs that usually indicates time reference relative to either the time of speaking or the time at which some other situation was in force. He deals with the uses of tense where he claims that past tense marks situations as distanced either in time or reality from the speaker or writer, while present tense shows the absence of past tense and thus indicates the absence of such distancing.

According to Givon (2001) the category tense involves the systematic coding of the relation between two points along the ordered linear dimension of time: reference time and event time. He gives three major tense division, plus a fourth whose status is bit murky which are as follows where :i) Past- an event (or state) whose event-time preceded the time of speech. ii) Future-an event (or state) whose event-time follows the time of speech. iii) Present- an event (or state) whose event-time is right after the time of speech. iv) Habitual- an event (or state) that either occurs always or repeatedly, or whose event-time is left unspecified.

According to William (2002) past and present tense go together, since they are both formed from verb stems plus the suffixes –s and –ed. The traditional future tense is formed from the auxiliary verbs shall and will plus the verb stem. The traditional future tense is a syntactic construction but the past and present tenses are single words.
2.4.1.2. Aspect

According to Lyons (1968) the term aspect was first used to refer to the distinction of ‘perfective’ and ‘imperfective’ in the inflection of verbs in Russian and other Slavonic languages. The term ‘perfective’ (or ‘perfect’) is reminiscent of that used by the Stoic grammarians for the somewhat similar notion of completion. He cited that English has two aspects which combine freely with tense and mood: the ‘perfect’ and the ‘progressive’. Lyons further discuss a number of other aspectual distinctions in English of more limited distribution, including the ‘habitual’ only in the past tense and the ‘mutative’ (which is restricted to the passive: I got killed). There are some verbs in English which do not normally occur with progressive aspect known as the ‘non-progressive’ verbs like think, hate, taste etc.

According to Tallerman (1998) aspect is a grammatical category of verbs which expresses information as whether the action of the verb is completed or unfinished. He illustrates two kinds of aspect in English-progressive aspect which means an unfinished action and is marked by the auxiliary be along with the –ing form of the verb and perfect aspect which means a completed action. A perfect aspect in English requires auxiliary have plus a special form of a verb as the past participle, which in regular verbs ends in –ed/-en.

Givon (2001) discusses three Aspectual contrasts: i) Perfectivity: perfectivity Vs imperfectivity ii) sequentiality or relevance: perfective Vs perfect iii) immediacy: remote Vs vivid. Perfectivity is an inherent property of all lexical verbs (or predicate). He divides the verbs (or predicate) in the lexicon of all languages into four major groups in terms of their inherent aspectuality: i)
Compact (short duration) verbs- events coded by such verbs are sharply bounded at both ends example, spit, cough etc. ii) Accomplishment (completion) verbs- verbs in this group code the accomplishment or completion of an event such as arrive/come, finish etc. iii) Activity (process) verbs- this type of verbs is used to depict activity or process events for example, break, smash, dance etc. iv) Stative verbs- this type of verbs are used for depicting states of relatively long duration like be sad, be happy etc. Perfectivity Vs imperfectivity: the grammar of perfectivity involves primarily the binary distinction between the perfective and the imperfective aspects. Perfective focuses on termination and boundedness and strong association with the past tense. Imperfective perspective focuses away from termination and boundedness. The Perfect is functionally the most complex and most subtle grammatical aspect. He gives four features of Perfect: anteriority, perfectivity, counter-sequentiality and lingering relevance.

2.4.1.3. Modality

Modality expresses the speaker's attitude toward the action or state given by the verb, especially with regard to degree of necessity, obligation, or permission, degree of probability or ability. Lyons (1968) describes Mood as, “Mood, like tense, is frequently realized by inflecting the verb or by modifying it by means of auxiliaries. It is best defined in relation to an ‘unmarked’ class of sentences which express simply the speaker towards what he is saying”. He further emphasizes that Interrogative sentences stand in contrast to Declarative sentences by virtue of modality. Interrogative sentences are quite clearly marked and they may be characterised by additional modalities which indicates the expectation of the speaker. He gives example from Latin where three types of ‘yes-no’ questions are commonly recognized: i) ‘Open’ question with the suffix –na; ii) those expecting
the answer ‘yes’ introduced by the particle none and iii) those expecting the answer ‘no’, introduced by nun. Other modalities, apart from command and Interrogative he mentioned three scales of modality which may be relevant in which the ‘attitude’ of the speaker is grammatically marked in different languages. The first scale is of ‘wish’ and ‘intention’. The second scale is that of ‘necessity’ and ‘obligation’ and the third is that of ‘certainty’ and ‘possibility’.

According to Fabb (1994) Modality is the expression of possibility (including permission) or necessity (including obligation) and can be expressed by modal verb, or by a noun, adjective or adverb.

Tallerman (1998) states mood as a grammatical category which marks properties such as possibility, probability and certainty. He further states that mood is an entirely separate property from tense and is used for actual events.

According to Givon (2001) modality codes the speaker’s attitude toward the proposition. By attitude he primarily means two types of judgement made by the speaker concerning the propositional information carried in the clause: Epistemic judgement and Evaluative (deontic) judgement. Givon reforms the traditional epistemic modalities. According to the re-definition of epistemic modality is as follows: i) Presupposition: the preposition is taken for granted to be true, either by definition, prior agreement, generic culturally-shared convention, by obvious to all present at the speech situation, or by having been uttered by the speaker and left unchallenged by the hearer. ii) Realis assertion: the proposition is strongly asserted to be true. But challenge from the hearer is deemed appropriate, although the speaker has evidence or other strong grounds for defending their strong belief. iii) Irrealis assertion: the proposition is weakly asserted to be either
possible, likely or uncertain (epistemic sub-modes), or necessary, desired or undesired (valuative-deontic sub-modes). But the speaker is not ready to back up the assertion with evidence or other strong grounds; and challenge from the hearer is readily entertained, expected or even solicited. iv) Negative assertion: the proposition is strongly asserted to be false, most commonly in contradiction to the hearer’s explicit or assumed beliefs. A challenge from the hearer is anticipated, and the speaker has evidence or other strong grounds for backing up their strong belief.

2.5. Other Verbal Elements:

2.5.1. Agreement: (Person, Number and Gender)

According to Steel (1987), the term agreement commonly refers to some systematic covariance between a semantic or formal property of one element and a formal property of another.

According to Tallerman (1998) case marking and verb agreement are two alternative ways to represent the same information. Agreement or cross-referencing means that a head verb is formally marked to reflect various grammatical properties of its NP arguments. He claims that the most common categories involved in agreement are the inherent properties of NPs such as Person, Number and Gender and the relational property, Case.

Corbett (2006) reflects agreement features as person, number and gender. They are called phi-features in GB.
2.5.1.1 Person

Lyons (1968) defines Person with reference to the notion of participant-roles: the ‘first’ person is used by the speaker to refer to himself as a subject of discourse; the ‘second’ person is used to refer to the hearer; and the third person is used to refer to persons or things other than the speaker and the hearer. He made a clarification in the traditional treatment of the category of person. The ‘third’ person is to be distinguished from the ‘first’ and ‘second’ persons in several respects. The category of third person may combine with other categories as ‘definite’ or ‘indefinite’ and ‘proximate’ or ‘remote’. Pronouns of the first and second person are definite (+ def), whereas third person pronouns may be either definite or indefinite. He furthermore said that pronouns of the first and second person necessarily refer to human beings. Pronouns of the third person may refer to human beings, to animals and to things.

2.5.1.2. Number

According to Lyons (1968), “the most common manifestation of the category of number is the distinction between singular and plural”. Number has – singular and plural. Singular means ‘one’ and plural means ‘more than one. The verb must agree with its subject in Number and Person. That is, the verb must be the same Number and Person as its subject. Subject-verb agreement generally means that the third person singular verb form must be used with a third person subject in the simple present tense.

Croft (1990) explains number in a hierarchical form and divides the number system into singular-dual-plural system. He claims that there is a structural evidence of the markedness of the dual form. Structurally, the dual forms are
frequently marked with a nonzero morpheme just the plural is. Dual form consists of a morpheme added to the plural form, which in turn consists of a morpheme added to the zero-marked singular form. He gives an example from kharia, in kharia animate nouns have a plural in –ki and a dual in –ki-yar: example, biloi-ki ‘cats’/ biloi-ki ‘two cats’. The singular forms of nouns distinguish the following cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and vocative. The plural forms do not distinguish the nominative and the vocative, thus demonstrating the marked inflectional behaviour of the plural with respect to the singular. The dual distinguishes only two forms, collapsing the nominative, accusative and vocative into one form and the genitive and dative into other form. Thus, the plural is more marked inflectionally then the plural. Croft (1990) further claims that all languages do not have the singular< plural< dual form, such languages that do not have the categories described in the hierarchy described number categories define as ‘one object’ (singular), ‘two object’ and more than one/two objects’ (plural). He gives an example that in chamehrevi does not have a separate plural category; instead it has the categories of ‘two or more’ and ‘three or more’.

2.5.1.3. Gender

The term gender in Lyons (1968) is derived from the Latin general word meaning ‘class’ or ‘kind’: the three genders of Greek and Latin were the three main noun-classes recognised in the grammar. The traditional names for the three genders found in the classical Indo-European languages are ‘masculine’, ‘feminine’ and ‘neutral’. Gender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender-concord; and the reference of the pronouns he, she and it is very largely
determined by natural gender. This depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate.

Corbett (1991) gives a detailed explanation on gender agreement. He explains the form and elements showing agreement. He claims that the most common means of marking gender agreement is affixation which mostly is inflectional affixes. In all languages the gender agreement markers do not show uniformity in its occurrence. Agreement markers occur before the stem in Bantu languages whereas in Indo-European languages agreement markers come after the stem. The least usual form of agreement is infixed agreement. He also states that agreement in gender may occur in a wide range of agreeing elements. The following are the element showing gender agreement: i) Adjectives, which he claims to be common. He gives an example from Russian where nov is the adjective stem form meaning new is attached with –yi, -aja and -oe to show masculine, feminine and neuter respectively. ii) Demonstratives frequently show gender agreement in Russian. iii) Noun markers like Definite and indefinite articles (in languages which have them), numerals, possessives and participle are used to mark gender agreement.

2.6. Passive construction

According to Borsley (1991) a passives involves a subject, some form of the verb be and a passive participle, which is identical in form to a past participle but different in its syntactic properties. He further claims that in a typical passive, a post-verbal constituent is missing and the subject has the main properties of the missing constituent. And if the post-verbal constituent must or can be a dummy, so must or can the subject. Similarly, if the post-verbal constituent can be clause,
so can be the subject. Finally, if the post-verbal constituent can be understood as part of idiom, so can the subject.

Tallerman (1998) states that although not all languages have a passive construction, it is extremely common in a wide variety of languages and the basic passive constructions in all languages are formed from transitive verbs. The typical characteristic of the passive is that the arguments of a transitive verb—its subject and object both change their grammatical relations, and that the verb signals this by changes in its form. In the passive construction the object of the active sentence is promoted to be the subject of the passive sentence and the subject of the active sentence are demoted or either removed in the passive construction. Where demotion means that the NP is still present but no longer the core argument of the transitive verb and instead becomes an oblique argument for instance in English it appears inside a PP as the by-phrase. In English the verbs in the passive differ in form from the verbs in active sentences. The passive contains the past participle (-en) form and contain a form of be (was, were) as an auxiliary. However in English neither the auxiliary be nor do the past participles alone indicate a passive construction. The passive construction is possible only when they occur together.

2.7. Review of earlier works done on Thadou and other TB languages.

The earliest writing is the translation of scripture by Ngulhou Thomsong in 1971. There are some notable literary works done by non-linguist in the form of dictionaries or word list like Songmantam Dictionary by T.S Agou and Thadou-Kuki English Dictionary, Chenna gam paole by Tongkhohao Khongsai.
According to Chhangte (1989) in the argument structure of Mizo, subjects normally precede all other argument. She also mentioned that Mizo verbs have two stems (stem I and stem II). The stems generally differ in their tone and finals and stem II verbs are associated with background information. Verbs in Mizo are identifiable from the subject and object agreement clitics and the agreement affixes are obligatory for all constructions except imperative and wh-subject question. The subject pronoun clitics for intransitive verbs are less complicated and are as follows: ‘ka’ and ‘kan’ for first person singular and plural respectively, ‘i’ and ‘in’ for second person singular and plural and ‘a’ and ‘an’ for third person singular and plural respectively. And in transitive construction, transitive verbs have object agreement clitics in addition to the subject clitics. She also claims that Mizo does not make tense distinction and aspect and modality markers follow the main verb. And negation usually comes last in VP.

Bedell (1996) claims that Lai which is spoken in and around the town of Hakha, present administrative capital of chin state Myanmar the person agreement particle for first, second and third person is recognised as ka, na and a respectively. He gave the example,

15. ka kal
   I Go/went
   ‘I go/went’.

16. an kal
    you Go/went
    ‘You go/went’.

17.a kal
    He/she Go
    ‘He/she/it goes/went’.
The plural form of these particles can be formed by adding the suffix ‘-n’. For example,

18. kan kal
   we Go/went
   ‘We go/went’.

19. nan kal
   you Go
   ‘You go/went’.

20. an kal
    they Go/went
    ‘They go/went’.

Bedell (1998) studies the Agreement in Matu, a Kuki-Chin subgroup of the Tibeto-Burman about 60,000 speakers in Matupi Township, Chin State Myanmar and adjoining areas of Mizoram State, India. He is of the opinion that Matu has a system of particles accompanying verbs which show agreement with subject and object. Person agreement (with the subject only) is shown by the particles which precede the Verb or prefixes:

Ka (first) na (second) a (third)

Number agreement is shown by the particles which follow the verb or suffixes:

-hih (dual) u (plural)

Singh (1999) Tense and Aspect in Kuki-Chin talks about the absence of tense and the dominance of aspect in Kuki-Chin languages. He claims that not only Kuki-Chin languages but Tibeto-Burman languages lacks concept of time and that it has no grammatical device for expressing location in time i.e. has no grammaticalised tense. What is significant in TB is aspectual system, not tense. In
support of his statement he gave evidence from some TB languages namely Meiteilon, Kom, Hmar, Paite, Tangkhul and Lhota. In Meiteilon, the difference between məhəkcəkca-ri ‘He is taking his meal’ and məhəkcəkca-re ‘He has taken his meal’, is a matter of imperfective Vs perfective aspect. The two sentences in Meiteilon cited show “the continuation of taking his meal” and “completion of taking his meal”, respectively. This is why it is categorized as aspect, not tense.

In Kom,

21. john -in lekʰa a- sun
  john NOM Letter PRO Write
  ‘John writes a letter’.

22. yaniŋ joh⁵n -in lekʰa a- sun
  yesterday joh⁵n NOM letter PRO Write
  ‘Yesterday John wrote a letter’.

23. ziŋŋə joh⁵n -in lekʰa a- sun -sik
  tomorrow joh⁵n NO letter PRO write FUT M
  ‘Tomorrow John will write a letter’

Hmar,

24. lekʰa a jiek
  Letter I Write
  ‘I write a letter’.

25. jani lekʰa ka jiek
  Yesterday Letter I Write
  ‘I wrote a letter yesterday’.
26. ka lekʰa jiek diŋ
    I Letter write FUT
    ‘I shall write a letter’.

Tangkhul

27. John -nə letər kapi -ya
    John NOM Letter write ASP
    ‘John writes a letter’.

28. öyya John -nə letər kapi -ya
    yesterday John NOM letter write ASP
    ‘John writes a letter yesterday’.

29. John -nə akhama letər kapi -ra
    John NOM tomorrow letter write FUT
    ‘Tomorrow John will write a letter’.

Lhota

30. ömbo -nə kakoci aran -to
    I ERG Letter write ASP
    ‘I write a letter’.

31. ömbo -nə Kakoci əntʃo aran -to
    I NOM Letter yesterday write ASP
    ‘Yesterday I wrote a letter’.

32. ömbo -nə Kakoci atfiya aran -ka
    I NOM Letter tomorrow write FUT
    ‘Tomorrow I shall write a letter’.

From the sentences, the same form of the verb is used in all the tenses and futurity is indicated by a suffix -gəni/-kəni in Meiteilon, -sik in Kom, -ra in Tangkhul and –ka in Lhota. It is clear that the question of absolute tense Past, Present and Future does not arise. Thus he came to the conclusion that the use of
distinct forms for Present Vs Future time reference is not due to the tense system of the language but rather to its modal system or aspectual system.

Hyman (2003) claims that verbs in Thadou are largely monosyllabic. He states that Thadou verbs have two forms: stem I and stem II and of the two verbs stem I is the more basic or underlying and stem II verb forms are partially predictable from the corresponding stem I form. Stem II verb forms are characterized on the basis of both the tonal and segmental change.

Cover (2006) is of the opinion that Thadou possesses two forms for most verbs, commonly referred to as stem I and stem II. She claims that syntactically, stem I occurs both truly in verbal clauses and in nominalizations containing a subject gap, while stem II occurs in nominalized constituents without a subject gap. Semantically, stem I nominalizations are individual-oriented, while stem II nominalizations can denote propositions, sets of individuals, or sets of eventualities.

In the field of Thadou literature Pauthang Haokip’s contribution is worth mentioning. In Thadou-Kuki Word Book (2007): A classified Vocabulary is a comprehensive book of Thadou vocabularies which provides a classified lists of vocabularies on the basis of their semantic and other types of relations such as those of pertaining to body parts, household articles, animals, birds etc. along with the information about their spelling, pronunciation and glosses.

According to Thirumalai (2007) Oral literature in Thadou may be broadly classified into two groups, namely, ritual and non-ritual. Oral literature employed for ritual purposes is restricted to recitation for ritualistic purposes by only a limited number of people-native priests or shamans and is known only to them.
Non-ritual oral literature in Thadou, on the other hand, consists of two subcategories. To the first category belong those folk poems and folk tales in a language not fully comprehended and which require interpretation. In the second category, we have both poetry and folktales, comprehended and enjoyed by all. The second category of the non-ritualistic oral literature is thus open ended. The ritual oral literature does not lend itself for parsing, phonological analysis or any type of linguistics analysis on the basis of linguistics structures. The first subcategory within the non-ritual oral literature is comprehended largely and can be analysed into various levels by language with some difficulty. The second subcategory of non-ritualistic oral literature is accessible to all and lends itself to linguistics analysis.

Haokip (2009): Noun Morphology in Kuki-Chin Languages. It provides the study of Noun Morphology of six languages, namely Thadou, Vaiphei, Gangte, Paite, Simte and Zou which includes derived and non-derived nouns, nominalized noun, pronouns, gender, number, case, noun classifier, noun compound, noun reduplication, noun modifiers. He claims that Non-derived nouns are morphologically simple nouns which comprise forms for animate (human), animate (non-human) or inanimate entities and Derived nouns are morphologically complex nouns and are composed of polysyllabic words. Nouns are mostly derived by nominalising verbs or adjectives where ‘-na’ is a nominalising suffix in all the languages. Haokip (2011): Linguistic Ecology of Thadou. In Singh (ed) (2011) Linguistic Ecology: Manipur. The study describes a brief discussion of Thadou in different spheres namely political, educational, demographic, economic, social, cultural, linguistic etc. Brief descriptions of consonant, vowel, syllabic structure, tone, gender, basic word order are
mentioned under the Linguistic sphere. Haokip (2012): Negation in Thadou. He explains in detail the different types and the use of the different negative particles in Thadou. He provides three negative constructions—Declarative, Interrogative and Imperative for the occurrence of the negative particles-poo, hiʔ, low and mɔɔ.

He claims that with the exception of the Imperative construction, two or more negative particles can be used in the same construction with slight nuances of meaning. The negative particles poo and hiʔ can be used interchangeable in Declarative construction where the negative particle ‘poo’ is used to negate a sentence which may not be expected, while the negative particle ‘hiʔ’ is used to negate a sentence which is expected to occur as shown in the following sentences,

33. 34a zuu poo e
rain Fall NEG DECL
‘It is not raining’. (Not expected)

33. 34b a Zoo hiʔ e
rain Fall NEG DECL
‘It is not raining’. (Expected)

‘Vegetarian’ (one who does not eat meat’)

Negative particle low always denote a set of individual for example,

35. lekʰ sim tʰei low mi
Book read know NEG Man
‘Illiterate’ (One who does not know how to read.)

Non-perfective Interrogative sentences can be negated by both the negative ‘low’ and ‘dāa’.
36. la nə sa? low diŋ həm
song 1P Sin NEG FUT Q.MKR
‘Will you not sing a song?’

37. la nə sa? daa diŋ Tam
song 1P Sing NEG FUT Q.MKR
‘Will you not sing a song?’

Haokip (2012) Verb stem alternation in Himalayan Linguistics Volume II claims that Thadou Verbs like many other Kuki-Chin languages have two forms generally referred to as stem I and stem II. The two stem forms differ in their final segments and tone, example, naa-nat ‘pain’, diŋ-din ‘stand’, goom-gop ‘unite’ and haŋ-han ‘bold’.

As stated above stem I and stem II form of verb has been discussed by many linguists however they did not mention the occurrence and the verb stem selection in different sentences. Therefore, a detail analysis of stem I and stem II form of verb is presented in the following chapter with examples from Thadou.